

1: Proto-Apartheid at an Eastern Cape town

Proconsul and Paramountcy in South Africa: The High Commission, British Supremacy, and the Sub-continent, John A. Benyon University of Kwazulu Natal Press, - Great Britain - pages.

Geologic history General considerations The African continent essentially consists of five ancient Precambrian cratons— Kaapvaal , Zimbabwe , Tanzania, Congo, and West African—that were formed between about 3. All of those rocks have been extensively folded and metamorphosed that is, they have been modified in composition and structure by heat and pressure. They consist of gray, banded gneisses, various granitoids, and rather well-preserved volcanic rocks that show evidence of submarine extrusion i. The rock type komatiite is particularly diagnostic of those volcanic sequences and is almost exclusively restricted to the Archean Eon. The cratons were tectonically stabilized by voluminous granite intrusions toward the end of the Archean and were then covered by clastic sediments, some of which contain economically important gold and uranium deposits e. The Proterozoic Eon 2. The oldest mobile belts are found in Archean rocks, such as the Limpopo belt separating the Kaapvaal from the Zimbabwe craton. Younger belts were formed during a continentwide thermotectonic event known as the Eburnian 2. Still younger belts of the Kibaran thermotectonic event 1. The end of the Precambrian was marked by a major event of mobile-belt formation known as the Pan-African episode about to million years ago , which generated long fold belts, such as the Mozambique belt along the east coast of Africa, the Damara and Katanga belts extending from Namibia into the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Zambia , the West Congo belt between Angola and Gabon , the Dahomey-Ahaggar belt between Ghana and Algeria , and the Mauritanide belt from Senegal to Morocco. A unique late Precambrian evolution is recorded in the so-called Arabian-Nubian Shield of northeastern Africa and Arabia. There, large volumes of volcanic and granitoid rocks were generated in an island-arc, marginal-basin setting—an environment similar to that of the present southwestern Pacific Ocean. Rocks were accreted onto the ancient African continent, the margin of which was then near the present Nile River , by subduction processes identical to those observed today. Subduction involves the descent of the edge of one lithospheric plate beneath that of another where two such plates collide. The interiors of the ancient cratons were not affected by the above tectonic events, and intracratonic sedimentary and volcanic sequences accumulated in large basins. The most important of those are the Transvaal basin on the Kaapvaal craton that contains economically important iron ore deposits; the Congo basin; and the West African basin, with its thick late Proterozoic sediments including a prominent tillite horizon that marks a major glaciation event at the end of the Precambrian. The best-preserved assemblages occur in the Kaapvaal and Zimbabwe cratons and contain large deposits of gold and sulfide minerals. The volcanic suites are dominated by basaltic and komatiitic lavas, often interlayered with metasediments and generally referred to as greenstone belts. Those structures are often found together with layered gneisses, or they are intruded by granitoid plutons. Several generations of greenstones have been recognized. The oldest formed about 3. Some of the oldest traces of life are preserved as unicellular algae in Precambrian cherts of the Barberton greenstone belt in the Transvaal region of South Africa. One of the most spectacular features marking the end of the Archean is the intrusion of the Great Dyke in Zimbabwe , a large, layered body of mafic-ultramafic rocks with substantial deposits of chromium, asbestos, and nickel. It is still not clear whether Archean evolution was characterized by the same plate tectonic processes that are seen today, and there are suggestions that the greenstone belts are remnants of ancient oceanic crust. Cratonic essentially undeformed sediments appear in the stratigraphic record for the first time in the late Archean and are best developed in the Kaapvaal craton of Southern Africa. The early Proterozoic about 2. Of particular interest are extensive stromatolite-bearing limestones and economically important iron formations in the Transvaal sequence of South Africa that provide evidence for an oxygen-rich atmosphere by about 2. About 2 billion years ago the Bushveld Complex —which is one of the largest differentiated igneous bodies on Earth , containing major deposits of platinum , chromium , and vanadium —was emplaced in the northern Kaapvaal craton. The middle part of the early Proterozoic was dominated by powerful orogenic mountain-building processes that gave rise to fold belts in which sedimentary and volcanic

rocks originally deposited in deep basins along the continental margins were severely deformed, metamorphosed, intruded by granitoid plutons, and finally uplifted into mountain ranges, probably as a result of continental collision. That Eburnian event was particularly active in western Africa, where it deformed the Birimian assemblages; but it was also active in eastern Africa, where it generated the Ubendian belt in southern Tanzania, and in southwestern Africa, where it formed major rock units in Angola and northern Namibia. By the end of the early Proterozoic, the Archean crustal blocks had grown into cratons of considerable size. The record of the middle Proterozoic about 1. Undeformed or only mildly folded successions are found in Southern Africa Waterberg and Matsap sequences, in northern Zambia, and in the Democratic Republic of the Congo. Elsewhere, sedimentary and volcanic sequences were deposited in elongate basins that were later subjected to intense deformation and metamorphism during the Kibaran event. That important thermotectonic episode gave rise to the Kibaran-Burundian fold belt in east-central Africa, the Ruwenzori belt in Uganda, and the Namaqua-Natal belt in South Africa and Namibia. The late Proterozoic about 1 billion to million years ago is again characterized by platform deposits in stable areas, such as the West African craton Taoudeni and Tindouf basins, the Congo craton, the Kalahari craton Nama basin of Namibia, and the Tanzania craton Bukoban beds. Tectonic and magmatic activity was concentrated in mobile belts surrounding the stable areas and took place throughout the late Proterozoic, during the so-called Pan-African thermotectonic event. Long, linear belts—such as the Damara-Katanga of central and southwestern Africa, the Mozambique belt of eastern Africa, and the Dahomey-Ahaggar belt of western Africa—formed during that time, and some of those belts contain diagnostic rock assemblages that indicate that they resulted from continental collisions. Many late Precambrian sequences of Africa contain one or two beds of tillites sedimentary rocks that are composed of lithified clay and rock sediments produced by the action of ice, which are thought to have resulted from an extensive glaciation that covered much of Africa at that time. In the Arabian Eastern Desert of Egypt and in the Red Sea Hills of Sudan, a predominance of volcanic rocks and granitoids, together with frequent remnants of ancient oceanic crust, document an evolution similar to what is now occurring in the island-arc systems of the southwestern Pacific. Those rocks clearly demonstrate that plate tectonic processes operated in the late Precambrian. The continent of Africa may be said to have taken shape during the Paleozoic. A glacial period during the Ordovician is evidenced by widespread deposition tillites, which may be seen in southern Morocco, throughout western Africa, and in subequatorial Africa as far south as Namibia. That tillite sequence marks the transition from the end of the Precambrian to the beginning of the Cambrian Period. In Egypt and in the Arabian Peninsula their presence has been revealed by drilling. Elsewhere they remain unknown. During the Ordovician Period about to million years ago, fossiliferous marine sandstone completely covered northern and western Africa, including the Sahara. The Table Mountain sandstone of South Africa constitutes its only other trace. That period is, in addition, remarkable for broad, large-scale deformation of the African crust, which raised the continental table of the central and western Sahara by approximately 5, feet 1, metres. Each emergence resulted in the creation of valleys that became flooded when the continent subsided. Toward the end of the period, the Sahara became glaciated, and tillites and sandstones filled the valleys. A complete change of sedimentation characterized the Silurian Period about to million years ago, which is indicated by the deposits of graptolitic shales those containing small fossil colonies of extinct marine animals of uncertain zoological affinity in the Arabian Peninsula and in northwestern Africa. Marine fossils of the Devonian Period about to million years ago are found in North Africa and in the Sahara. Fossilized plants that include Archaeosigillaria ancient club mosses may be traced in formations of the earlier Devonian Period in the Sahara and in South Africa Witteberg Series. The Carboniferous Period about to million years ago was marked by the onset of several major tectonic events. Evidence of marine life that existed in the earlier part of the period comes from fossils found in North Africa, the central and western Sahara, and Egypt. During the middle and later parts of the Carboniferous, the Hercynian mountain-building episodes occurred as a result of collision between the North American and African plates. The Mauritanide mountain chain was compressed and folded at that time along the western margin of the West African craton from Morocco to Senegal. Elsewhere, major uplift or subsidence occurred, continuing until the end of the Triassic Period i. Those structures were synformal folded with the strata

dipping inward toward a central axis in the Tindouf and Taoudeni basins of western Algeria, Mauritania, and Mali and antiformal forming a mountainous spine or dome at Reguibat in eastern Western Sahara. The late Carboniferous Period is represented throughout the Sahara by layers of fossilized plants and sometimes "as in Morocco and Algeria" by seams of coal. Different phenomena may be observed, however, in the region of subequatorial Africa, including the Dwyka tillite, which covers part of South Africa, Namibia, Madagascar, an extensive portion of the Congo Basin, and Gabon. At several places in South Africa, the Dwyka strata are covered by thin marine layers that serve to demarcate the transition from the Carboniferous to the Permian Period and that form the beginning of the great Karoo System. Marine fossils of the Permian Period about 250 million years ago are visible in southern Tunisia, in Egypt, in the Arabian Peninsula, on the coasts of Tanzania, and in the Mozambique Channel. Elsewhere, traces of the Permian are of continental rather than marine origin and are included in the Karoo System in South Africa. There, the lower Permian strata are known as the Ecca Series and are divided into three groups: The upper Permian is represented by the lower part of the Beaufort Series, which continued forming into the early Triassic Period. The Beaufort Series is almost 10,000 feet, 3,000 metres thick and is famous for its amphibian and reptile fossils; a similar series is also found in southern Russia. The absence of primary marine formations throughout Southern Africa should be emphasized. It is not yet known whether that absence is due to a hiatus in deposition or to erosion. The Mesozoic Era about 250 million years ago is divided into three periods "the Triassic, Jurassic, and Cretaceous" and is remarkable for the transgression of ancient seas and for the emergence of massive land formations containing interesting fossil remains. Marine formations During the Triassic Period about 250 million years ago, ancient seas left deposits of marine formations in North Africa, the southern Sahara, Egypt, Arabia, and parts of Tanzania and northern Madagascar. In the middle of the Jurassic a great transgression of the Indian Ocean extended over Somalia and much of Ethiopia. That event was followed by a series of marine transgressions in the Cretaceous Period about 100 million years ago, including those along the coasts of equatorial Africa when Gondwana broke up and the present Atlantic and Indian oceans took shape; during one transgression a shallow sea covered much of the northern and central Sahara and Egypt as far south as Sudan; and a later one again covered the same areas, as well as western Arabia and the west coast of Madagascar. Continental formations In Africa north of the Equator and in Arabia, Mesozoic continental formations covered large areas. During the Triassic the Saharan Zanzaitine Series, containing dinosaur and other reptilian fossil remains, was deposited. The Saharan Taouratine Series, containing fossils of vegetation and of great reptiles, was laid down during the Jurassic. In the upper Karoo System of subequatorial Africa, formed during the early Triassic Period, the Beaufort Series contains fossils of fish, amphibians, and reptiles. The final stages of the Triassic and the early Jurassic periods were characterized by the terminal folding of the Cape mountain chain, by subsidence in the Karoo basin, by fracturing, and by widespread upwelling of Karoo basaltic lavas through fissures, creating formations some 4,000 feet, 1,200 metres thick, such as the Drakensberg range along the eastern border of Lesotho and in South Africa. During the Jurassic and the Cretaceous periods, widespread sediments were deposited that contain fossilized plants, dinosaurs, and smaller reptiles. Certain unique eruptions occurred during the Cretaceous that led to the creation of kimberlite pipes near-cylindrical rock bodies, usually approximately vertical and derived from melting at great depth in the upper mantle in Southern and Central Africa; some of those, particularly in South Africa, Botswana, Namibia, Angola, and the Democratic Republic of the Congo, contain large quantities of diamonds and are the main source of that precious mineral. The Cenozoic Era The Cenozoic, the most recent major interval of geologic time is divided into the Paleogene and Neogene about 66 to 2. During that mountain-building episode, the Atlas Mountains of northwestern Africa were folded and uplifted. Notable too are the formation of the Red Sea rift valley and the volcanism and rifting that took place during the later stages of the period. With the exception of the Sahara, nummulites of the Eocene Epoch about 56 to 34 million years ago are found in the same places, as well as on the African coasts of the Indian Ocean. There also are lepidocyclines foraminifera of the Oligocene Epoch about 34 to 23 million years ago and of the Miocene Epoch about 23 to 5. Continental formations Several levels may sometimes be distinguished in the continental formations of the Cenozoic Era. They include lower Eocene levels containing *Pseudoceratodes* a genus of gastropod and *Dyrosaurus* a type of reptile, as well as upper Eocene and

Oligocene levels containing silicified wood and fossilized fish, turtles, crocodiles, snakes, and mammals. Sediments of the lower Miocene, which are found on the banks of Lakes Rudolf and Victoria in East Africa, contain mastodon a large elephant-like mammal and Proconsul africanus a large ape. Central Asian hipparions three-toed ancestors of the horse, which simultaneously entered Africa and Europe during the late Miocene Epoch about 11 to 5. Rudolf, LakeLake Rudolf, northern Kenya. In the Miocene, North African flysch thick and extensive deposits composed largely of sandstone formed layers that, from the Rif mountain range of Morocco to northern Tunisia, were pushed from the north toward the south. The High Plains area, farther south, which as a whole was only mildly deformed, was bounded on the south by the northern Atlas Mountains, which intervened between it and the Saharan Atlas. Formation of the Red Sea Tectonic movements in the region of the Arabian-Nubian Shield that took place at the end of the Oligocene and the beginning of the Miocene Epoch almost separated Arabia from Africa. A trough fault-bounded depression developed because of divergence in the crust between northeastern Africa and western Arabia, and the Mediterranean Sea swept into the resulting rift valley, forming a gulf that extended to Yemen. The gulf was prevented from joining the Indian Ocean only by an isthmus that stretched from Djibouti in the west to Aden Yemen in the east. At the end of the Miocene the Isthmus of Suez was formed, and the gulf became a saline lake at the bottom of which thick evaporites sediments formed as a result of evaporation were laid down. The isthmus permitted Asian animal life to pass into Africa during part of the Pliocene Epoch from about 5.

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These events were the longest-running military action in the history of African colonialism. At times, tensions existed between the various Europeans in the Cape region, tensions between Empire administration and colonial governments, and tensions and alliances of the Xhosa tribes. Background Map of the Cape Colony in , showing its eastward expansion The first European settlers in the Cape were the Dutch , who established a small supply station in at present-day Cape Town for their trading ships to stop for supplies en route to and from the East Indies. European settlement in and around Cape Town later spread into the valleys. By the second half of the 18th century, Europeans, predominantly trekboers , moved eastward up the coast and encountered the Xhosa in the region of the Great Fish River. The Xhosa were already established in the area and herded cattle. Competition for land ensued, particularly after the arrival of several groups of British settlers in The Europeans invaded using force when land they had originally seized restricted them from expanding their stock farming activities. The Dutch East India Company , which was responsible for what is referred to as "founding" several urban areas, like towns and cities in already populated areas of the west of South Africa, continually changed the boundaries in the Cape Colony , establishing the Great Fish River as the eastern frontier in In December an armed clash started, the war resulted from allegations of cattle theft by Xhosa people. This led to Adreaan Van Jaarsveld capturing a large number of cattle from the Xhosa and claiming to have driven them out of Zuurveld by July [4] Second war â€”93 The second war involved a larger territory. It started when the Gqunukhwebe clans of the Xhosa started to penetrate back into the Zuurveld , a district between the Great Fish and the Sundays Rivers. Some frontiersmen, under Barend Lindeque, allied themselves with Ndlambe regent of the Western Xhosas to repel the Gqunukhwebe. Panic ensued and farms were abandoned. Discontented Khoikhoi then revolted, joined with the Xhosa in the Zuurveld, and started attacking white farms, reaching Oudtshoor by July Commandos from Graaf-Reinet and Swellendam then started fighting in a string of clashes. Fearing general Khoi rising, the government made peace with the Xhosa and allowed them to stay in Zuurveld. In another Graaff-Reinet rebellion started forcing more Khoi Desertions and farm abandonments. The commandos could achieve no result, so in February a peace was arranged, leaving the Xhosas still in Zuurveld. The Zuurveld acted as a buffer zone between the Cape Colony and Xhosa territory, empty of the Boers and British to the west and the Xhosa to the east. In , the Xhosa occupied the area, and flashpoint conflicts with the settlers followed. A mixed force under Colonel John Graham that included British soldiers drove the Xhosa back beyond the Fish River in an effort that the first Governor of the Cape Colony , Lt-General John Cradock , characterized as involving no more bloodshed "than was necessary to impress on the minds of these savages a proper degree of terror and respect". Fifth War â€”19 The fifth frontier war, also known as the "War of Nxele", initially developed from an judgment by the Cape Colony government about stolen cattle and their restitution by the Xhosa. A Cape Colony-Ngqika defence treaty legally required military assistance to the Ngqika request A Khoikhoi group led by Jan Boesak enabled the garrison to repulse Maqana, who suffered the loss of 1, Xhosa. Maqana was eventually captured and imprisoned on Robben Island. It came to be known as the "Ceded Territories". The Grahamstown battle site continues to be called "Egazini" "Place of Blood" , and a monument was erected there for the fallen Xhosa. The chief appointed his eldest son Maqoma despite him lacking experience in battle and the renowned Jingqi to lead the fight that lasted from midday to the evening. Ngqika was defeated, losing about men during what is considered the bloodiest and most famous clash between Xhosa people in history. Insecurity persisted because the Xhosa remained expelled from territory especially the so-called "Ceded Territories" that was then settled by Europeans and other African peoples. They were also subjected to territorial expansions from other Africans that were themselves under pressure from the expanding Zulu Kingdom. Nevertheless, the frontier region was seeing increasing amounts of admixture between Europeans, Khoikhoi and Xhosa living and trading throughout the frontier region. Outbreak Cape responses to the Xhosa cattle raids varied, but in some

cases were drastic and violent. On 11 December, a Cape government commando party killed a chief of high rank, incensing the Xhosa: Among the worst sufferers was a colony of freed Khoikhoi who, in 1818, had been settled in the Kat River Valley by the British authorities. Refugees from the farms and villages took to the safety of Grahamstown, where women and children found refuge in the church. British campaign The response was swift and multifaceted. Boer commandos mobilised under Piet Retief and inflicted a defeat on the Xhosa in the Winterberg Mountains in the north. It was from Grahamstown that the retaliatory campaign was launched and directed. However, the two primary Xhosa leaders, Maqoma and Tyali, retreated to the fastnesses of the Amatola Mountains. The new province was declared to be for the settlement of loyal tribes, rebel tribes who replaced their leadership, and the Fengu known to the Europeans as the "Fingo people", who had recently arrived fleeing from the Zulu armies and had been living under Xhosa subjection. Magistrates were appointed to administer the territory in the hope that they would gradually, with the help of missionaries, undermine tribal authority. Hostilities finally died down on 17 September, after having continued for nine months. Originally assured of his personal safety during the treaty negotiations, Hintsa rapidly found himself held hostage and pressured with massive demands for cattle "restitution". Other sources say he offered himself as a hostage until the indemnity was paid and even suggested that he accompany Colonel Smith in collecting Xhosa cattle. Other sources say his horse bolted and Harry Smith tried to shoot the fleeing man but both his pistols misfired. Giving chase, he caught hold of Hintsa and dragged him heavily to the ground. Hintsa was still full of fight. Aftermath By the end of the war, 7, people of all races were left homeless. The settlement of the Fengu in the annexed territory had far-reaching consequences. They swiftly acquired firearms and formed mounted commandos for the defense of their new land. In the following wars they fought alongside the Cape Colony as invaluable allies, not as subordinates, and won considerable renown and respect for their martial ability. In total 40 farmers Boers were killed and farmhouses were burnt down. In addition 5, horses, , head of cattle and , sheep were plundered by Xhosa tribes people. In retaliation sixty thousand Xhosa cattle were taken or retaken by colonists. As a result, the Boer community lost faith in the British justice system and often took the law into their own hands when cattle rustlers were caught. The territorial expansion and creation of "Queen Adelaide Province" was also condemned by London as being uneconomical and unjust. Diplomatic agents were exchanged between the Cape Colony and the Xhosa Chiefs as reliable "ambassadors", and colonial expansion into Xhosa land was forbidden. Land annexed from the Xhosa in the previous war was also returned and the displaced Xhosa moved back into this land, assuaging overpopulation in the Xhosa territories. In the framework of this new system, the frontier settled and saw nearly a decade of peace. As one settler ominously declared of the Xhosa territory: On the colonial side, two main groups were involved: Relations between the British Imperial troops and the local commandos broke down completely during the war. On the Xhosa side, the Ngqika known to the Europeans as the "Gaika" were the chief tribe engaged in the war, assisted by portions of the Ndlambe^[14] and the Thembu. The Xhosa forces were over 10 times greater in number, and had by this time replaced their traditional weapons with firearms. It was their new use of guns that made the Xhosa considerably more effective in fighting the British. Both sides engaged in the widespread use of scorched earth tactics. These clashes marked the beginning of the use of firearms by Xhosa armies, scoring many victories for Chief Sandile, gaining him a reputation as a Xhosa hero and mighty warrior. Governor Maitland imposed a new system of treaties on the chiefs without consulting them, while a severe drought forced desperate Xhosa to engage in cattle raids across the frontier in order to survive. The event that actually ignited the war was a trivial dispute over a raid. A Khoi escort was transporting a manacled Xhosa thief to Grahamstown to be tried for stealing an axe, when Xhosa raiders attacked and killed the Khoi escort. The Xhosa refused to surrender the murderer and war broke out in March. Shoot-out between Xhosa and long, slow-moving British army column. The regular British forces suffered initial setbacks. Large numbers of Xhosa then poured across the border as the outnumbered imperial troops fell back, abandoning their outposts. The only successful resistance was from the local Fengu, who heroically defended their villages from the far larger Xhosa forces. On 28 May, a force of 8, Xhosa attacked the last remaining British garrison, at Fort Peddie, but fell back after a long shootout with British and Fengu troops. The Xhosa army then marched on Grahamstown itself, but was held up when a sizable army of Ndlambe Xhosa were defeated on 7 June by

General Somerset on the Gwangu, a few miles from Fort Peddie. However the slow-moving British columns, like the Xhosa, were considerably hampered by drought and were becoming desperate. The local Commandos were much more effective in the rough and mountainous terrain, of which they had considerable local knowledge. They rode deep into the Transkei Xhosa heartland, directly towards the kraal of Sarhili "Kreli", the paramount chief of all the Xhosa. He also promised to use his limited authority over the frontier Ngqika to restrain cross-border attacks. A treaty was signed and the commandos departed on good terms. Later stage of the conflict A column of Xhosa gunmen, crossing a ravine in the frontier mountains However, British Imperial General Peregrine Maitland rejected the treaty and sent an insulting letter back to the Xhosa paramount-chief, demanding greater acts of submission and servility. The effects of the drought were worsened through the use, by both sides, of scorched earth tactics. Gradually, as the armies weakened, the conflict subsided into waves of petty and bloody recriminations. At one point, violence flared up again after Ngqika tribesmen supposedly stole four goats from the neighbouring Kat River Settlement. When the rains came, floods turned the surrounding lands into a quagmire. The violence slowly wound down as both sides weakened, immobile and fever-ridden. The war continued until Sandile was captured during negotiations and sent to Grahamstown. Although Sandile was soon released, the other chiefs gradually stopped fighting, and by the end of the Xhosa had been completely subdued after 21 months of fighting. Eighth war 1853 Background The Cape Mounted Riflemen charging the enemy at Waterkloof during the 8th Frontier War Large numbers of Xhosa were displaced across the Keiskamma by Governor Harry Smith, and these refugees supplemented the original inhabitants there, causing overpopulation and hardship. Those Xhosa who remained in the colony were moved to towns and encouraged to adopt European lifestyles. Harry Smith also attacked and annexed the independent Orange Free State, hanging the Boer resistance leaders, and in the process alienating the Burghers of the Cape Colony. In June there followed an unusually cold winter, together with an extreme drought. It was at this time that Smith ordered the displacement of large numbers of Xhosa squatters from the Kat River region. When Sandile refused to attend a meeting outside Fort Cox, Governor Smith deposed him and declared him a fugitive. The party was forced to retreat to Fort White, under heavy fire from the Xhosa, having sustained forty-two casualties.

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The others were the praetor and the propraetor. This extension applied only outside the city walls of Rome. It was an extension of the military command of the consul, but not of his public office. The office of the praetor was introduced in BC. The praetors were the chief justices of the city. They were also given imperium so that they could also command an army. The position of propraetor was instituted. These were praetors whose imperium was extended and were given the task to command a reserve army. Propraetors had the power to command one army, whereas proconsuls had the power to command two armies. In BC Quintus Fabius Maximus Gurges had his command extended and to carry out mop up operations towards the end of the war. He defeated the Pentri , the largest Samnite tribe. He was too young to have been a consul. He was made proconsul by a vote of the Popular Assembly. This was done because Manlius Acidinus had not been a consul before. After this, no praetors were added even when the number of provinces increased. It became customary to extend the authority of consuls and the praetors at the end of their annual terms. The provinces were assigned by lot to proconsuls and propraetors. The proconsuls were assigned the provinces which contained the larger number of troops. The consuls and proconsuls lost their military authority, but the titles retained considerable prestige. The imperial provinces were mostly the border provinces, where most of the legions were stationed. This allowed the emperor to retain control of the army. In the senatorial provinces, the governors were called proconsuls. Tenure was generally restricted to one year. These were chosen by lot, with the result ratified by the Senate. In the imperial provinces, the emperors appointed governors who held the title of legatus Augusti pro praetore , or pro-praetor, regardless of what position they had held previously. These outranked even the vicars in protocol, though administratively they were subordinates like all governors. They governed the provinces of: Asia, comprising the central part of the western Anatolian coast; Achaea , comprising the Peloponnese and most of Central Greece ; and Africa , the northern part of modern Tunisia. Conservative and Unionist governments were notably more tolerant of such freelancing than Liberal governments were. These proconsuls ruled in the age of the transoceanic telegraph, so rapid communication did not end proconsular independence.

4: Proconsul - Wikipedia

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This era of co-operation came to an end when Governor van Plettenberg proclaimed a fixed frontier in the region where contact had been maximal. Restriction of movement and competition for grazing land soon led to friction. Alien custom aggravated the misunderstandings; and within a few years a war broke out on the Eastern Frontier. Between 1818 and 1827, that troubled region was to endure 8 conflagrations, each one fiercer than the one that preceded it. White settlement of the frontier followed by the consolidation and renewed expansion reduced the frontier tribes to desperation. The eighth war in the series, which erupted on Christmas Day 1824, was the most bitter of all. It involved 15 British regular troops and thousands of colonials in a gruelling campaign that lasted more than two years. The war ended with the destruction of the Xhosa military power and the complete subjugation of the Ciskeian clans. And yet, after 25 years of colonial dominance, the seemingly pacified frontier had to endure a ninth frontier war. The issues that led to conflict in differed considerably from those of the past. The whole country was in a state of transition. A changing economy, prosperity from diamonds, gold and a fashion for ostrich feathers were beginning to rouse the land out of its pastoral torpor. Responsible government in the Cape Colony and a new imperial policy were disturbing the political status quo. The accession of Lord Carnarvon to the Colonial Office in 1851, brought a powerful protagonist of confederation to the corridors of imperial policy. The unifier of Canada was determined to repeat his achievement on the African sub-continent. His scheme met with more opposition than enthusiasm, and to help promote it, he appointed Sir Henry Bartle Frere, a forceful and experienced proconsul, High Commissioner for southern Africa. He found the frontier districts in a restless state. A mood arose, rooted in rumours about a conspiracy among the black nations to drive the white man out of the conquered territories. The settlers who, for years, had been content with the arrangement that kept their black competitors confined to locations in the Ciskei or bottled up in the nominally independent Transkeian territory, were no longer so convinced of its merits. The boom conditions which the Colony was enjoying had created an unprecedented demand for labour. Blacks were needed to work on the farms, in the busy ports and on the railroads that were racing to reach the Diamond Fields. A few days later, Frere left for the Transkei to hold talks with the dissident chiefs. He offered a string of unconvincing excuses, but what the old chief feared was that promises might be wrung out of him that he might not be able to keep. An influential war-party, emboldened by guns purchased on the diamond fields, had arisen in Galekaland which was opposed to further concessions to the white man. Angered by the Galeka rebuff, Frere issued a warning to Sarhili making him responsible for all transgressions into Mfengu territory, and returned to Kingwilliamstown to prepare for war. Chalmers was outnumbered and his men inexperienced, and when his 7-pounder, on which great reliance had been placed, collapsed on its carriage, panic spread through his command. A determined Galeka advance led to a general abandonment of the field and during the retreat, six police troopers were killed. The Colonial War The inglorious start of the Ninth Frontier War shook the border country, but a cool and determined proconsul was at the centre of affairs. He quickly brought together a force of police troopers, 2 Mfengu under Chief Veldrnan Bikitsha, and the small police artillery section in preparation for the next Galeka sortie. They did not wait long behind their ramparts. On Saturday, 29 September, a Xhosa army, emboldened by the triumph on Gwadana, appeared before Ibeka in packed formation. The attack was conducted in the traditional manner reserved for inter-tribal wars, but seldom used against soldiers armed with guns. A war-council was created in Kingwilliamstown for the purpose of taking the war into Galekaland. It consisted of Frere and Lieutenant General Sir Arthur Cunynghame representing the Imperial interest, and two colonial cabinet ministers who happened to be at hand John X. Merriman and Charles Brownlee. The council was an unhappy creation that would witness more acrimonious wrangling between the two authorities on the frontier than co-operation in the pursuance of the war against the Galckas. Frere wanted to control the conduct of the war, and he wanted to do it with Imperial soldiers. Nor did he want a regular general to command colonial forces, especially Cunynghame whom he

held in low regard. A compromise agreement was hammered out. They would be used to guard the supply-line to the Transkei, but would not be permitted to cross the Kei, for only colonial men would be allowed to fight against the Xhosa. After the defeat of the Galekas at Ibeka, the Thembu Chief, Ngangelizwe, brought his people into the war on the colonial side, having perceived sooner than most, that Ibeka represented the high-water mark of the Galeka war effort. The lightly equipped, fast-moving columns encountered little opposition in their drive to the coast, and the pursuit continued into neutral Bomvanaland. Galekaland was turned into a desolation of burnt-out kraals and empty grain-pits. With his men eager to return home with their loot and his supply-lines starting to disintegrate, Griffith called off the chase. The sons of the Colony were the heroes of the moment; little mention was made of the isolated detachments of red coats, who had guarded the Colony. In reality, the war was far from over. It was soon to enter its grimmest phase. Sir Bartle had decided that cause of confederation would be promoted by a general disarmament of the black nations. The most conveniently placed group for his experiment was the clan of Makinana, a minor chieftain who had deserted the Galeka cause and settled in the Ciskei under colonial protection. Cunynghame over-reacted to the anxious mood and, without consultation, attempted to surround the Ngqika location with a thinly stretched red line. The delicate relationship that had thus far survived between Merriman and the General collapsed under the strain of his unilateral action. Griffith, with virtually no other forces at his disposal, sent an urgent telegram to Kingwilliamstown for reinforcements. Merriman had nothing to offer the distraught Commandant, and in desperation, recommended to Molteno that the Colony accept an offer of Imperial troops. His solution was to flood Galekaland with Thembu and Mfengu warriors. At this juncture, Frere decided to move in and take charge of the war. Half of the 88th Regiment the Connaught Rangers, which was stationed in Cape Town, was shipped to East London and a naval brigade was formed from the sailors and marines in Simonstown. The Imperial War It was after Christmas that Glyn considered himself to be in a position to take action in the Transkei. Campaigning in the midsummer heat proved exhausting work for the red-coated infantry, but the search for the invisible enemy was left to the better-adapted native allies. Galekaland turned out to be a deserted territory. The Galeka army had vanished once again. To keep them bottled up in Bomvanaland, Glyn had a series of earthworks built near the Bashee River, but the Galekas, instead of repeating the flight to Bomvanaland, slipped away stealthily in the opposite direction and concentrated in the bush-filled valleys and ravines that radiated from the lower Kei valley. Khiva was no renegade headman like Makinana, and an appeal for help from so noteworthy an emissary could not be ignored. The Ngqika chief, Sandile, veteran of two hard-fought frontier wars, was well acquainted with the penalties of defeat, but the voices for war were very persuasive, and on the last day of the people of Ngqika broke out in rebellion. Within the first week, all the Mfengu kraals in the neighbourhood were smouldering ruins, as was the hotel at Draaibosch and a number of white farms. The supply-line to the Transkei was cut and reinforcements flocked into the lower Kei valley. Wardell sent urgent messages to the larger garrison at Komga requesting artillery anti supplies but Colonel Lambert of the 88th, cut off from Kingwilliamstown, and feeling excessively vulnerable, decided to evacuate the Mpetu post and concentrate his forces in Komga. The abandonment of the Kei valley forts and the murder of three colonial officials in the East London district brought forth a new wave of frontier panic. Blame was heaped on Frere, Cunynghame and the Imperial effort; and none was more eloquent or more single-minded than Molteno. When Frere responded with a request to the War Office for reinforcements, the colonial Prime Minister decided that the time had come to transfer himself to Kingwilliamstown and oust the interfering Governor. It had been made clear that the Xhosa strength was concealed in the lower Kei bush, and that guarding the approaches to Bomvanaland had become a pointless exercise. Cunynghame, accordingly, recalled Glyn to Ibeka and instructed him to gather his forces for a drive down the Transkei side of the river. On 12 January, Colonel Glyn had to move rapidly out of Ibeka with only men; word had been received that a powerful Xhosa force was preparing to attack the camp of his Right Column, which was situated 35 km to the south-west, near a small river called the Nyumaga. It was a relatively short encounter that resulted in a Xhosa withdrawal at sunset. The Xhosa easily eluded them. By the end of the month his men were tired and short of rations, and he decided, in consequence, to establish a forward base within striking distance of the Kei valley. The camp was pitched on some high ground near the southern slope of a hill called Centane. Upcher wasted

no time building a strong earthwork, which he surrounded with trenches and rifle-pits. His exertions were not in vain, for on the morning of 7 February, his Mfengu scouts roused him with the news that a large Xhosa army was moving out to attack the camp. The principal attack was launched by the Galeka division from the south west. When the warrior columns first glimpsed the well-prepared camp with the soldiers in position, they hesitated, then stopped, and Upcher sent out a detachment of infantry and a troop of Frontier Light Horse, under Carrington, to act as a lure. They advanced a short distance, fired a few volleys and fell back on to the camp. There were over 3 warriors in the attacking columns, and as one man, they set off in pursuit. Accurate artillery fire opened gaps in the massed ranks, but the attack continued without faltering. It was only when the infantry popped their heads out of the trenches and opened up with their rifles that the attackers began to waver. The unexpected fusillade proved very demoralizing, and after two half-hearted attempts to continue the advance, the shaken columns broke. Carrington led his horsemen out like an avenging fury, and turned the withdrawal into a flight. It was not yet 08h00 when Upcher ordered breakfast served. His men had scarcely begun to eat when warriors were observed grouping on a ridge to the right front of the camp. Grenfell fell into the trap, for the high grass on the ridge concealed far more warriors than were visible to him. Carrington, just returned from the chase, had to be sent up the ridge to extricate him. He, too, was soon in difficulties when the Ngqikas stealthily outflanked him. It was the unexpected arrival of reinforcements from the direction of Ibeka that persuaded the Ngqikas to break off the engagement. By 10h00 the battle of Centane was over. The Galekas had suffered heavily in the action. It was to be their last appearance as a fighting force in the war. One of the largest Xhosa armies ever assembled had been whipped by men armed with the Martini-Henry rifle. The Premier left Frere in no doubt about where he thought the troops should go; and the Governor then took the unprecedented step of dismissing Molteno and his ministry. To crown it, Upcher handed him a triumph of arms a few days later. The meddling colonial politicians were out of the way, and he was ready to finish the war in grand style before his term of command came to an end.

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